

series of general observations upon the igneous action at present going on the surface of the earth formed the subject of Prof. MORRIS's sixth paper. With respect to the temperature of the surface of the earth, it is derived from the sun and from the planetary bodies, the heat from the latter source being comparatively inconsiderable. The surface temperature varies in different countries, being highest near the equator, and gradually diminishing as we proceed toward the poles; it is likewise modified and dependent upon the relative position of land and water, the extent of the land, and its extension near or into the Arctic regions—thus that we observe a great difference in the mean temperature of places in the same parallel of latitude. The temperature of the British Isles, for example, is modified by their insular position, the influence of the Gulf stream, and also by the winds passing over it. The influence of superficial heat penetrates, however, to a limited depth, at which it remains constant; this depth varies in amount in different districts where observations have been made. In the temperate zone the line of constant temperature is about 60 or 70 feet from the surface, whilst at the equator it is only a few feet. Above this line the temperature varies at different seasons of the year; below it, for a certain depth at least, it gradually increases in proportion to the depth, giving evidence of the existence of an internal source of heat, which will be more apparent from the study of the phenomena connected with or arising from volcanic action. The existence of internal heat may also be inferred from the hot springs found in various parts of the earth, from the saleses, or so-called mud volcanoes, which are often accompanied by gaseous exhalations, and, thirdly, from the great number of active volcanoes and the nature of the mineral masses ejected with or erupted from them. With regard to the increase of heat with the line of constant temperature, numerous observations, both in Europe and in America, in mines, wells, &c., have proved that the heat increases uniformly to a certain depth, but this ratio may not be continual. At Greulite it was found that the increase was 1° Fahr. in every 100 ft. in a salt well in Westphalia 1° in 53 ft. in the deeper mines of Prussia 1° in 76 ft. in the Monkwearmouth Colliery pit 1° in 60 feet, and in other localities, in wells from 1° in 50 feet to 1° in 70 feet, and this result of the undertaking has been above or below the level of the sea. These grounds Cordier calculates that at the depth of 10,000 feet the temperature would be at boiling point, and that at 24 miles iron would be in a state of fusion, and basalt and similar rocks perfectly fluid. Thermal springs are further indications of internal heat, more especially studied in connection with the localities in which they are found. Thermal springs abound in most regions of active volcanoes—near Naples for example, in Iceland, New Zealand, and in certain districts of North and South America. These are also found in regions where volcanic activity has ceased, as, for instance, in the Auvergne, Germany, Hungary, Sicily, and on the Euganean hills in Italy, the chief sites of extinct volcanoes. Thermal springs are also found along lines of fault, or at the junction of stratified with igneous rocks, in the Pyrenees and Alps, for example. They have been observed along anticlinal axes and faults, as in the coal regions of Virginia. Mud eruptions, which emit carburetted hydrogen and other gases, occur in the Crimea, near the Caspian and in the Seas, in China, and in some parts of South America; gaseous eruptions are likewise frequently met with in connection with hot springs. In such cases sometimes called volcanoes, it is better to consider them mud volcanoes, as they are never accompanied by igneous matter, but only by heated hydrogen, and sometimes by bituminous products. As to volcanoes, they may be recorded as giving evidence of direct communication between the interior and surface of the globe, being the vents through which, constantly or periodically, ashes, cinders, and lava are ejected, and steam or vapour expelled. Volcanoes are distributed over various parts of the globe, and occur principally near the sea, almost the only exceptions to this being one of the Quito group, which is about 150 miles from the coast, and in Central Asia, where volcanoes are mentioned as occurring at a great distance from the sea. As to the formation of volcanoes, they are considered either as craters of elevation or as cones of eruption. In the former theory, which supposed the solid strata to have been pushed into a more or less cone-like arrangement. This theory has, to a great extent, given place to that of craters of eruption—viz., that the conical form was due to the gradual accumulation of scoria, ashes, and lava ejected from the eruptive opening. This view, suggested by Saussure, and supported by Hamilton, Dolomieu, and Breislach, has been clearly explained by Mr. Poulett Scrope in 1821, whose work, "Considerations on Volcanoes," has scarcely received that attention from geologists it fully merits, and also maintained by Sir Charles Lyell. The nature of volcanoes, they may be divided into subaerial and subterranean; of the latter class a striking instance was given in the elevation of the island of St. Pierre, in the Mediterranean, in 1831, but which shortly afterwards subsided. The subaerial volcanoes are divided into central and linear; the former being those which have a kind of central position within a circular or elliptical disturbance, examples of which are found in Vesuvius, the Azores, and probably Erebus, in the Antarctic regions. The linear are those in which the volcanic chain has a greater length than breadth, and are subdivided into two classes, the first of which includes Iceland, and is mentioned as having a linear series, then the Lipari Islands, the Azores, and Sicily; the Lesser Antilles; the chain commencing in the north of Pangeo, extending along the western coast in Chili, Bolivia, and Peru, and thence to Quito and Guatemala, and the central region of Mexico. The second class includes the Aleutian Islands, and the central region of Mexico, the Kurile Islands, the Philippine and Molucca Islands; the islands of Sumatra and Java (which probably for its limited area contains more volcanic action than any other part of the world), and the islands extending through the Solomon Isles, New Hebrides, to New Caledonia. The number of volcanoes has been estimated by Mr. Daubeny at 237, of which two-thirds in the region of the Pacific Ocean. In the Atlantic, two having an elevation of above 20,000 ft., and thus we see that to which modern volcanic action has been instrumental in the formation of the globe. To account for the nature of this action, the various products which result therefrom, different theories have been advanced, but chemical and mechanical. Lemery and Breislach have attributed the combustion of sulphur, petroleum, &c., produced the heat, and the results to proceed from the effects of the permeation of

advocated by Daubeny, and not objected to by Bunsen. The mechanical, or, perhaps, he should say the geological, theory would infer that steam being generated in the interior would, if not allowed to escape, in process of time acquire, so much heat and elasticity that it might press on the fluid matter below, and so bring about the effects. This is slightly in accordance with facts observed, since as well as gas, steam also accompanies volcanic eruptions. The eruptive matter probably having first found its way through some fissures finally reaches the surface. Generally speaking a volcanic cone consists of cinders, ashes, and lava, which have been gradually accumulated around the central opening or crater. Sometimes, however, the ejected matter is forced through an opening or line of fissure along the side of the cone, as in the recent case at Torre del Greco. The substances thrown out by volcanic action are not always the same; sometimes it is lava, at other times an eruption of ashes, cinders, and volcanic dust. It was matter of the latter kind that destroyed Pompeii, but that which destroyed Herculaneum was of a more lava-like character. Volcanic dust is frequently carried 200 or 300 miles from the volcano. Extinct volcanoes are those which have not given evidence of eruption (in historical times, they occur in Auvergne, in the Eifel district, on the Rhine, near Olot in Catalonia, in some parts of Germany and Hungary, as well as in other parts of the globe. If we proceed in the investigation of igneous action at earlier dates in the British area, we shall find, in the tertiary period, the interstratified traps of the Island of Mull, probably of miocene age, and the basal of the Giant's Causeway and Fingal's Cave, which was probably erupted after the chalk period. Proceeding backwards we find igneous rocks in the oolitic strata, as the dyke which extends from the coast of Yorkshire to the interior; and also in the Island of Skye, where there have been two eruptions—one at the period of the oolite, the other at that of the lias.

Igneous rocks are associated with the carboniferous series in Ireland, Derbyshire, Northumberland, and Scotland, also with the Devonian rocks in some parts of Scotland; and, lastly, we find distinct evidence of volcanic action in the trappian ash, contemporaneous with the formation of rocks of the Silurian period in Wales and in the South of Scotland, as well as others of a subsequent date. It will be noticed, therefore, that the igneous rocks occur both interbedded and intrusive—the latter having forced themselves through the strata already deposited. Hence it is easy to perceive the interest and importance of becoming impressed with recent volcanic phenomena, in order to understand similar phenomena presented at various geological periods; and thus showing how the study of the present assists us in unravelling the history of the past.

Two very interesting papers have recently been read before the North of England Institute of Mining Engineers, which afford valuable information respecting the geology of the English and Scottish Borders. One is "On a Part of the Carboniferous or Mountain Limestone Series of North Northumberland," by Mr. E. F. Boyd, the treasurer of the Institute, and the other, "A Geological Paper on the Border Districts of Dumfriesshire, Cumberland, and Part of Roxburghshire, including the Coal Formation of Canonbie," &c., by Edmund Gibsone, of Penton, Longtown. Both these gentlemen are well qualified to deal with their respective subjects, and as the districts to which they immediately refer are not so familiarly known to geologists as are some other parts of the kingdom, we propose to give a summary of the facts contained in both papers. We may add that each paper is illustrated by plans and sections of enormous size, there being no fewer than 14 in Mr. Gibsone's paper, one of which measures 31 in. by 22 in., while Mr. Boyd's paper contains a dozen plans, sections, and plates, one of the former measuring 36 x 26 in., another 42 x 9 in., and a third 33 x 9 in., without allowing, in any case, for margin. We notice first Mr. Boyd's paper, which, by the way, would have been the better for a little editorial revision, and the attention of an experienced proof reader.

The district comprised in the paper read by Mr. Boyd may be nearly defined by commencing at the south bank of the Tweed, about three-quarters of a mile south of Berwick, and continuing by the edge of the high ground before descending to the River Till, past Berwick Hill, Shoreswood, and Felkington, through Greenlawdale, Gatherick, Etal, Ford, and Ford Moss to Doddington, Hetton, Holburn, Belford, and the sea; this being the line of outcrop of the lower portion of the mountain limestone or carboniferous series, classed by Prof. Phillips as the lowest portion of the upper Palaeozoic strata. This limestone, Mr. Boyd tells us, displays almost all the ordinary characteristics which distinguish the mountain limestone series proper, but differs from the Derbyshire, Lancashire, and Yorkshire mountain limestone in being divided by beds of sandstone and shale, with part ironstone and fossil plants, and in containing numerous and valuable seams of coal. In points of resemblance to other members of the same series, the Great Whin Sill is to be compared with the Upright Basaltic Dyke, the Longy Hough dyke of 109 fms., the Hetton dyke, 90 fms., and the Slainsfield dyke, of nearly 70 fms. Thirdly, this district assimilates itself to others in being intersected by the Upright Basaltic dyke above-mentioned, and by the extensive exposure on the surfaces of the Great Whin Sill, or stratified basalt. In his description of the Whin Sill Mr. Boyd expresses his agreement with Hutton that, although it is an intruder among such strata, there is little evidence to prove that it was actually *protruded* between beds of mainly carboniferous strata. Hutton, however, has not been in favour of this view. Hutton's idea—in contradistinction to that of Prof. Sedgwick—"that this bed of basalt was produced by an overflowing of lava during the deposition of the mountain limestone, after those beds which are found below it, and prior to those above it." The direction of the Whin Sill is nearly N.E. from Hetton, in Westmorland, to Dunstanborough, where it disappears by east dip and denudation into the sea, to appear again, forming the Ferne Islands, but on its reappearance at Bamburgh (where, in the castle wall, its core is cut out), it is marked by bed escarpments and irregular edges, as at Raven Garth and Boggie Houses. At the latter place, says the writer, "it presents the longest and loftiest exposed surface, being nearly a mile in length, and displaying on its western face 80 perpendicular feet, showing the prismatic and columnar arrangement; below this the large blocks and debris extend at an angle of 45° for more than 110 ft. further, making its perpendicular here probably 130 ft." Mr. Nicholas Wood and Mr. Hutton connect the northern extremity of the sill with the latter part of the outcrop of the Spilsbury dyke, but this is a difficult point, marked out as a continuous course for it from Kyle to Holy Island, because the immediate *overlying* of it by successive beds of limestones, coals, shales, and freestones leads to the opinion that its further progress north was intercepted by the interference of the great Sils Rize dyke to north; into the fissure and direction of which he conceives the whin or basaltic upright dyke running from Holy Island to Lennel, on the Tweed, to have obtruded itself. In describing the course of the Upright Basaltic Dyke, Mr. Boyd mentions a fact of some interest bearing upon the relative ages of the strata, and that is, that at the point where the Duddo basaltic quarry is wrought there is known to exist a set of three slip dykes, or troubles, in the coal rocks and shales, and exactly at this place in the quarry the basalt is found to be shifted

or removed sideways, or from its course (but without alteration of the width of the basalt) to the extent of 18 ft., or as far as 30 ft., according to the influence or power of the interfering slip dyke pursuing immediately after its original direction. If, then, the epoch of the upheaving of the Upright Basaltic Dyke may be conceived to be more recent than the deposition of the Whin Sill—which its extraneous effect on the adjoining strata leads one to imagine—and if coeval with, or very recently subsequent to the date of the other slip dykes around it, it would, indeed, be interesting to have been allowed the opportunity of seeing whether it would have, in a similar manner, penetrated through the whin sill, or

what other effect it would have produced upon it." Mr. Boyd then proceeded to describe the strata of the district, in the list, which appears at the end of the report, occurring in five classes of printed pages. In the first there are 15 fms. of coal, 46 fms. 1 ft. 6 in. of calcareous deposits, and 545 fms. of other deposits, giving a total thickness of 605 fms. 5 ft. Then follows a description of the workable seams of coal in the district, and as these are but little known we shall briefly condense the information which Mr. Boyd supplies concerning them. The Rough coal is the highest workable seam in the series of the Lowick district. It is about 1 ft. 8 in. thick, and being, as its name implies, of coarse quality, only fit for lime burning, it is wrought merely to prolong the duration of the seam below it. The Licker coal is with the exception of the Rough coal, the best in the district. It is sold as a landable coal, and is the only seam of importance overlying the thin stratum of uppermost bituminous of the general section, being about 13 fms. above the uppermost of them. It is highly bituminous in some of its layers, but leaves a large residuum of white ash after burning. The Greenses or Allerton coal is a coarse coal, with a roof of red freestone. It is 2½ ft. thick, and lies about 6 fms. below the Oxford limestone. The Muckle Howgate, and Little Howgate seams are, the former about 3 ft., and the latter 2 ft. 2 in. thick, and are respectively 12 and 40 fms. above the Wooded limestone. The produce of these seams is in much demand for burning the rich extensive deposits of lime. The Caldeide or Mucklow coal is usually from 2¼ to 3 ft. thick, and occurs about 2 fms. below the Wooded limestone. It is a fair bituminous, though not very rich coal, and is sold as a household landable. The Scremerston Main or Black Hill coal is about 90 fms. below the Little Howgate seam. The usual section is from 2 ft. 4 in. to 2 ft. 8 in. of good coal, and from 6 in. to 1 ft. 3 in. of ground coal; near the bottom of the seam is sometimes found a brassy band, and occasionally a coarse coal between the top and ground coals, increasing to about 6 in. from 6 to 9 in. thickness. The annual output at Scremerston Colliery is about 200,000 tons. The Stony coal, or Hardly seam, is an indifferent one, being hard, and coarse burning. An average section is from 2 to 3 ft. thick, and is composed of 1 ft. 2 in. of good coal, 1 ft. 2 in. of bastard limestone bands, and 9 in. of a very rich and friable bituminous. It has a hard thill for kivering, which, along with the thickening of the band, creates obstacles to its extensive working. The Cancer coal of Berwick Hill, Balmain coal of Murton, and Main coal of Thornton, Shoreswood, &c, in, by reason of its splintly character, an excellent steam-raising coal, and but for its tenderness roof would be more extensively worked. It is usually composed of top coal, 1 ft.; chalkstone, 1 in.; fine splint, 1 ft.; rough or coarse coal, 7 in.; band, 1 ft. 8 in.; good coal, 1 ft. 6 in.; chalkstone, 1 in.; and a very fine coal, 4 in. The Thimblestone coal is 3 ft. thick, containing 4 in. of band and 1 in. of coarse coal. The Coal of the Mucklow is a very rich coal, made in the shale below. At present this coal is not worked, although it were it not for heavy laborage payments, and difficult roofstone. It would, by reason of bearing well the effects of weather and carriage, prove a valuable adjunct to the household and steam purposes of the district. The Cooper Eye—the principal seam of the western—lies about 20 fms. below the Balmain or Cancer coal, its roof being of bastard limestone. It comprises 1 ft. 3 in. of splinty top coal, 1 ft. 6 in. of fine coal, 1 ft. 6 in. of coarse coal, and 1 ft. 6 in. of fine coal, and is a very valuable seam, but with large residuum—and, therefore, a very high price. Under the Cooper Eye, and above the "Macker," sometimes disappearing for as far as 250 yards. This coal forms the supply of the Shoreswood and Felkington Collieries to the extent of about 21,000 tons annually. Its appearance when wrought is large and square; is highly bituminous, and although leaving, as all the coals of this series do, a white residuum, burns with a bright flame, and possesses considerable lasting properties. The "Macker," which occupies the centre of this seam, increases 2½ and 3 ft. in the north, as at Berwick Hill; in the south it somewhat diminishes. The last of the series of coal seams in this district is the Wester coal, lying from 10 to 15 fms. above the Cooper Eye. It is a very good coal, and at the present time it has not been extensively sought after, but at Felkington New Colliery, the section shows 2 ft. 2 in. of coal, 1 ft. 6 in. of limestone band, 7 in. of coal, 3 ft. of blue shale band, and 10 in. of coal.

The method of working the coal in this neighbourhood differs from that generally adopted in the northern coal field, it being wrought on the "long wall" system, which has been handed down from very ancient times. The wall face is divided amongst the workmen to the extent of 10, 12, or 15 yds. to each man, according to the thickness or hardness of the seam. The very general existence of strong limestone bands, which to a manager of bord and pillar working would be a marked and almost insurmountable difficulty, is, however, says Mr. Boyd, not a serious obstacle to the working of the seam, even with considerable intervals between the pillar behind (about 4 or 4½ ft.) to the face, and the one in front, and behind which the pillars the stowing or "gob" is effected, as best as it can, by the other refuse or kirving material made and met with in the working. Where these bands are absent, or not strong enough to form pillars, recourse is frequently had to a portion of the roofstone, the last alternative being the employment of strong timbering, not expected to be again drawn or used. The moistening of the particles of iron pyrites stowed away with the rubbish is sufficient to alter its condition from the state of sulphuret to that of sulphate of iron, the decomposition of which frequently causes considerable increase of heat, and consequent disintegration of a large and difficult mass; although the ventilation is not difficult to maintain, the extent of run or traverse of the air being, in no case, very great, and the face and water levels being easily accessible.

Mr. Boyd concludes his paper by conducting the reader over the district in the character of an itinerant, pointing out the geological features of the country aside, and entering more minutely than at the commencement into the position and influence of the dykes and faults. On the last page but one he puts the following questions, which some of our readers along the Border may, perhaps, be able to answer:—"Whether throughout the whole range of its (the Whin Sill) appearance from Kylesnoe to Cumberland, it is always invariably overlain by the same strata, or geologically occurs as the same or different strata in the district in which it occurs? And whether the same or different strata to the north of Kylesnoe penetrated through and severed the whin sill, as it did the other strata; or whether their protrusion was coeval, and that they amalgamated in the fused state?"

MR. GIBSONE'S PAPER.—When the paper contributed by Mr. Gibson was read before the Institute, Mr. Boyd, the author of the essay which we have just epitomised, said he had never met with more illustrative and practical geological observations in any book or paper than those made by Mr. Gibson. To a certain extent we endorse this opinion. The paper is really a very valuable one, containing announcements of several geological discoveries, and bearing throughout marks of the careful and scientific observer.

The scene of Mr. Gibson's explorations is from the head of Liddesdale, around Langholm to midway between Annan and Dumfries, and then away east and north-east along the borders of Cumberland and Northumberland. The paper contains a brief description of the Silurians and old red sandstone, the carboniferous limestone, the coal formation and Permian strata, or new red sandstone. Details are also given of the most remarkable igneous rocks or trap-dykes and faults met with in each class of strata. The writer tells us that every district has been carefully investigated on the spot, the boundaries of each group marked, as exactly as the ground would admit, and as a subject interesting to mining engineers the situation in the district where any attempt to find antimony, lead, coal, or ironstone has been made (and these mineral trials are not few in number) are pointed out on one of the maps. Commencing with the Silurians, Mr. Gibson takes exception to the lowest strata, which he says are of the Devonian or roofing slate proper, is seen in Liddesdale a little above Peel Fell, skirts round by Arncliffe Hill, and appears again near Sandhopeburn, Mossespie, Langholm Bridge, Torbeckhill, and Dalston. The Silurians are all very much inclined in their lamina or beds—sometimes contorted. They generally have the dip to the south, and in the northern part of the district igneous rocks or dykes occur. A common section shows a thick stratum of soft slate near the old red sandstone of a pale green tint; the hard is met with in the old red of a greyish blue, micaceous and harder, of a deeper blue, sometimes seen in the slates are generally fine grained, thin bedded, and calcareous spar. Lead trials have been made in Grange Fell, Hazleberry Hill, and Westwater, and antimony has been met with near Crawthwaits Hill and Glendinning above Langholm. At Glendinning it was wrought from 1793 to 1798, and produced 300 tons regulus of antimony, the width of vein being from 5 to 20 in., containing antimony, lead, and a little silver. The old red sandstone rests upon the previously described Silurians, and is characterised by an infinite variety of colours and great differences in quality. The lowest strata are of a dirty drab, or grey, gritty, but soft, sandstone, of great thickness enclosing rounded quartz pebbles. Other beds which contain water-worn pieces of slate, brown and blue; then come finer brown sandstones, some of them highly micaceous, and these are followed by pink, white, and yellow sandstones, divided by layers of soft crumbling clays. Mr. Gibson states that the only fossil he has found in the old red here was a calamite, converted into coal, and not a very sharp impression. Three attempts have been made to find coal in the old red series, but without success. In 1781, another at Linbriidge Ford, where a thin seam of coal was found, and the third at Dalston, where a seam of coal was said to have been met with. Two trials for lead have been made in this paper by short narrow drifts, near the trap-dykes at Torbeckhill and Roanfell. The lower series of carboniferous limestones generally commence with dark, thin, and poor

1. The first part of the document is a list of names and titles, including "The Hon. Mr. Justice" and "The Hon. Mr. Justice".

manufacture of pig-iron. It is also one of the best coals for locomotive purposes in the district. This section often reposes upon a very strong rock, without the slightest trace of anything like fire-clay. The two Bamfury mines, known by the difference of 7 ft. and 8 ft., Banbury's, the Froggrow, New Pool, and other local names, are all of the same quality, and are of good quality for domestic purposes. The Holly Lane is the best house coal in the district, but freestone is used for coking in some parts of the coal field, and is of good quality for domestic purposes. The Holly Lane is the best house coal in the district, but freestone is used for coking in some parts of the coal field, and is of good quality for domestic purposes. The Holly Lane is the best house coal in the district, but freestone is used for coking in some parts of the coal field, and is of good quality for domestic purposes.

the top coal is altogether absent, or only 9 or 10 inches in thickness. The change of place without any fault intervening, or the quality of the bottom seam being improved, the Whinney coal, a seam about 3 feet in thickness, reposes upon a bed of ironstone, containing considerable siliceous matter, and possessing the property of smelting at a very low temperature. The Silver Mine coal is the lowest workable seam in the middle series; there is, however, another mine, about 2 ft. in thickness, at 82 yds. from the Silver mine. The distance between the lowest mine in the middle series and the Silver mine is 143 yards. The four-foot mine is the principal mine in the lower series; it is worked at Biddulph, and is there known by the name of the lower series; it is a good coking coal, and well adapted for the manufacture of iron and steel.

Thickness.	Yds. ft. 6 in.
Blackband ironstone.....	14 0
Strong bass.....	1 2 9
Shaggy ironstone, 4 ft.; ditto coal, 1 ft. 9 in.....	24 0 6
Black, bluish, and bass.....	1 1 9
Mine ironstone, 2 ft. 9 in.; ditto coal, 2 ft.....	10 1 6
Metal, coal, and bass.....	0 1 8
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	19 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	0 1 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	25 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	24 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	0 2 6
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	1 1 3
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	14 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	1 0 6
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	18 0 6
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	1 2 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	11 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	1 2 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	25 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	2 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	29 0 6
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	0 1 3
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	0 2 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	1 1 9
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	24 1 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	1 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	0 9 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	18 1 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	0 2 6
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	38 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	0 1 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	34 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	0 2 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	1 2 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	12 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	0 1 6
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	1 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	0 1 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	0 2 2
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	42 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	0 1 6
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	10 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	1 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	15 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	3 2 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	27 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	1 2 6
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	17 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	0 1 6
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	21 0 6
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	0 1 6
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	29 0 6
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	29 0 6
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	0 1 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	31 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	27 2 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	1 0 10
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	20 0 6
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	0 2 10
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	0 2 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	45 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	0 1 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	1 0 2
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	11 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	1 0 10
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	25 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	2 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	55 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	2 1 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	31 1 6
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	2 0 6
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	30 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	1 1 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	15 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	1 2 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	55 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	2 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	15 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	1 0 3
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	13 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	1 0 7
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	48 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	0 2 8
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	98 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	1 2 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	38 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	3 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	31 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	0 2 3
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	48 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	2 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	20 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	1 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	61 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	0 1 6
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	72 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	1 1 9
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	52 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	2 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	143 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	0 1 5
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	47 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	1 1 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	14 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	0 2 3
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	74 0 0
Black, bluish, coal, and bass.....	0 1 6

many instances the radius would be more than that named. Each seam of coal and its accompanying strata bears its respective distance to the others, where the change of angle and direction of dip takes place, consequently the curve formed by the turn again of the lower or outside mines is of greater radius than the uppermost or inner circle of mines. It is not unusual in this district to find the seams of coal so contorted or moved from their original position as to present the appearance of the same seam being folded together, and presenting two seams, each retaining its ordinary thickness, but separated by a few inches of dirt where the roof of the bottom mine should be. It is sometimes the case that three seams are found overlying one another in such a manner that little doubt can be entertained that it is the same seam of coal that has been forced one over the other by some extraordinary pressure or convulsion of the earth, but at what period of time and in what manner it has been accomplished I will not venture to hazard an opinion. These peculiarities often take place in close contiguity to faults or dislocation of the strata. Some portion of the coal field contains numerous faults or dislocations, perhaps none more so than in the neighbourhood of Talk-o'-th-Hill, although in the neighbourhood of Mow Cop, Harriehed, and Biddulph, the faults are both numerous and of considerable magnitude. At the Stonetrough Colliery, Biddulph, in working the rearers, five faults are met with, on an average of 22 yards each, all downthrows to the south-west, in little over 1000 yards of line of level, whilst at the same colliery, upon the flat dip, a distance of nearly two miles, is found without any fault whatever. At Biddulph the faults are also numerous, and of every imaginable kind, many appearing to branch out in different directions from a main fault in almost as many different forms as the roots from a tree. Were it not that the seams of coal were numerous, and that a mine either above or below the one removed by dislocation is often brought into nearly the same position as the one removed, it would be questionable whether some of the collieries now worked could be worked to advantage.

In addition to the small faults mentioned there are several very large ones, one of which forms the boundary of the coal field near Longton, throwing in the new red sandstone on the east side. In the neighbourhood of Newcastle there is also another fault—a downthrow to the east; it is variously estimated to be from 350 to 400 yards; it passes a little to the east of Hanchurch, whilst another serves to form the boundary for some distance on the north-western side of the coal field. This fault ranges from near Audley to Astbury, near Mow Cop (assuming the limestone at Astbury to be the carboniferous); this fault is a downthrow to the north-west, at Astbury, equal to the whole thickness of the millstone-grit and coal measures, and a considerable portion of the new red sandstone. A somewhat peculiar circumstance in connection with the faults of this district is the fact that at Kidsgrove, Harriehed, or any of the collieries south-west of Harriehed, most of the coal contains a considerable amount of bitumen, and almost every seam is of good quality for coking. To the north-east of that point they cease to contain anything like the same amount of bitumen, and the only mine that is at all adapted for making coke is the Crab Tree, or Four-foot Mine, in the lower series of mines. So suddenly does the change take place that the coal on one side of a 30-yards fault is remarkably adapted for coking, whilst on the other side much money has been spent in the fruitless effort of attempting to manufacture coke. As stated at the commencement, the points of interest to be found in this coal field are so numerous that I am compelled to pass over many that I might briefly have touched upon, had it not been for trespassing too long upon your time, and a desire to hear the views of some of those present who are better qualified than myself to explain the cause of some of the phenomena spoken of.

THE GEOLOGICAL FORMATION OF THE EARTH—No. XX.
TO THE EDITOR OF THE MINING JOURNAL.
SIR,—My views on this subject having for the present been brought to a close, I republish my diagrams collectively in a single sheet, and am now prepared to discuss all or either of them, together with the views I have enunciated on their merits. I have struggled hard to glean a smattering of the Earth's interior laws, and have done what no other man has yet attempted—placed before the public the 144 mines I surveyed previous to, or early in, the year 1857, at which time I published a summary of the results that might be anticipated. The pamphlet has now been before the public close on five years, and a republication in the next Journal will afford its readers an opportunity of judging for themselves if I then evinced glaring errors of judgment. I might even show the enormous sums wasted on some of these mines since, and many that continue in a fair way of wasting a deal more. I should not hesitate to extend the list by an equal number of other mines, but forbear, solely from a desire not to further injure those already injured.

I challenge any other man in the kingdom to submit a list of an equal number surveyed in one year, who has given the public the benefit of his judgment, or afforded them an opportunity of testing his skill. Hints of this kind prevent the useless expenditure of money on mines where there is but little chance of remuneration, which money, I consider, would be better spent in opening new ground, or exploring side lodges. In conclusion, I may observe that by professional geologists I may be considered presumptuous in offering my opinions so freely on such an abstruse subject, and at the same time denouncing in strong terms their generally accepted theories; but after passing upwards of half a century in watching carefully the ever-varying changes of Nature, both above and below the surface, it is strange if a practical man cannot hazard an opinion with greater certainty than those trained in schools, whose dogmas should long since have become obsolete.

NICHOLAS ENNOR.

THE GEOLOGICAL FORMATION OF THE EARTH—No. XX.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE MINING JOURNAL.

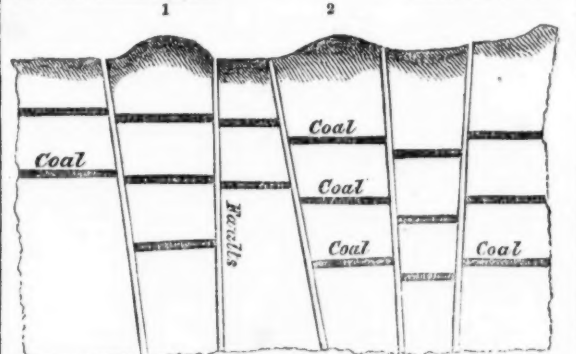
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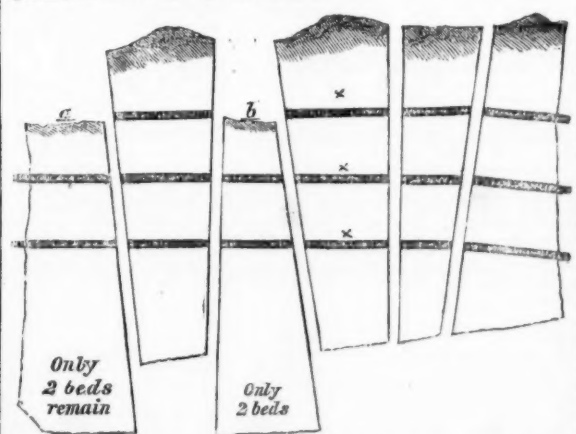
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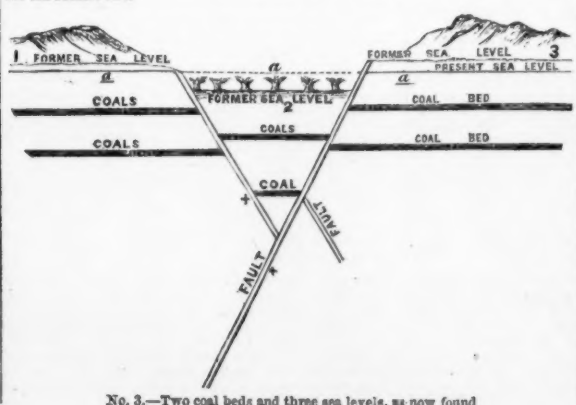
NICHOLAS ENNOR.



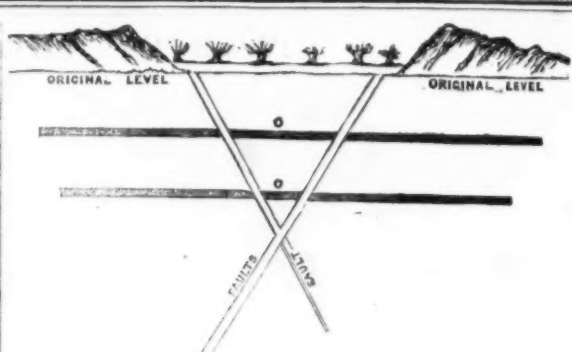
No. 1.—Prof. Ansted's section from Nature, showing a, b, with only two coal beds each. Where are the two missing ones? How come No. 1 or No. 2 hill to be thrown up from below without injuring the coal or faults?



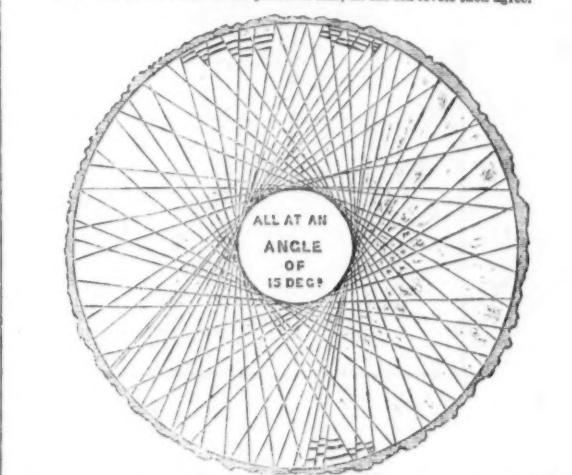
No. 2.—All the coal beds are again placed in line, it being found 1-20th short: then see the surface line.



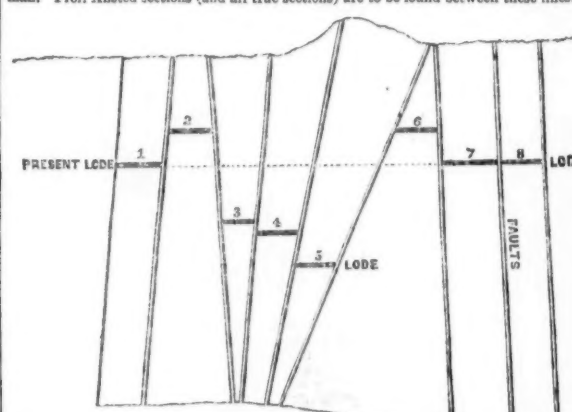
No. 3.—Two coal beds and three sea levels, as now found



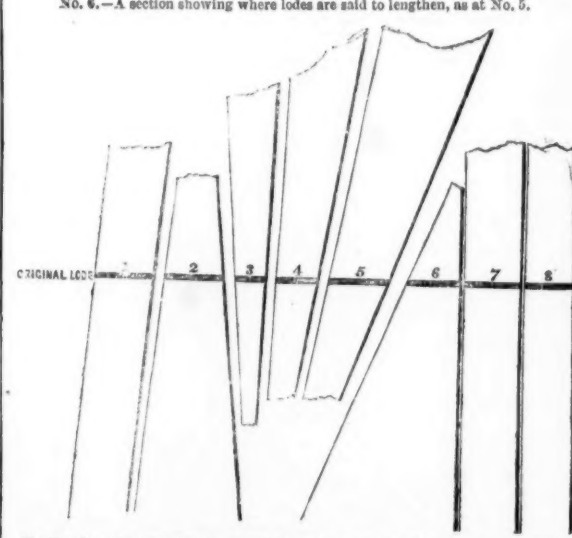
No. 4.—When all the coals are placed in line, all the sea levels then agree.



No. 5.—A section of the earth, showing the dip of lodges by the law as far as seen by man. Prof. Ansted sections (and all true sections) are to be found between these lines.



No. 6.—A section showing where lodges are said to lengthen, as at No. 5.



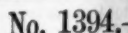
No. 7.—A section showing them put back in line, when (No. 5) it is found to be shortened the most of either place.

BOILER EXPLOSIONS.—The numerous accidents that occur from steam-boiler explosions, involving destruction of property and loss of life, imperatively demand that a strict enquiry should be instituted, with a view to discover the cause of these fearful catastrophes, and to devise preventive measures calculated to afford a proper remedy for the evil. The origin of these casualties often remains obscured in mystery, but in many instances they are attributable to ignorance, or may be traced to neglect. It happens that in some cases the risk might be obviated by means of a simple precaution, that can be easily adopted on all occasions, which consist in feeding the engines with "warm" instead of "cold" water whenever a supply is wanted. The fact has been ascertained by several experiments that cold water suddenly brought into immediate contact with calorific generates high electrical action, that is found to increase proportionately, according to the degree of intensity to which the articles become heated, and when the temperature of the water applied reaches below freezing point. Boilers in this condition of extreme heat and cold meeting are subject to violent shocks, from which influence they often burst like bomb-shells, and the fragments are scattered to a considerable distance. Other substances are affected in the same manner on being heated by steam, and the same danger exists in consequence of replenishing them with cold oil while heated from burning, an imprudent and dangerous practice, that cannot be too promptly abandoned. The expansive nature of steam differs essentially from explosive force, and produces results of a distinct kind. The peculiar qualities of steam, in a confined state, are exhibited by a constant and powerful pressure against the resisting iron boiler-plates, tubes, and cylinders by which it is enclosed exerting its active energies to open a passage for escape. The strength of the gigantic agent is derived from this source, which scientific ingenuity, combined with mechanical skill, has rendered subservient to control by a perfect contrivance that imparts motion to inert bodies through its instrumentality. A machine of this description is capable of being employed with safety to an unlimited extent for a variety of purposes, in a mode that has proved of incalculable value by abridging labour and aiding production. Judicious management forms an indispensable requisite for the regulation and guidance of the executive department, a prudential work that serves materially to ensure success in all pursuits, and diminishes the chances of failure incident to every enterprise. The primitive injunction to man, "Subdue the earth," appears to advance with rapid strides towards fulfilment, the process being principally conducted and mainly achieved through the wonderful operations of electricity and steam.—R. J. K.

PREPARING THE ENDS OF WELDED TUBES.—Mr. J. J. Russell, of Wednesbury, proposes, in place of heating the tubes as heretofore, to employ a bath of fluid lead, or other suitable metal, into which the ends of the welded tubes are immersed, and by the means they are readily and very uniformly heated to the extent desired, which cannot be the case when fire is used. The ends of the tubes when treated are forced into powdered coke, sand, &c., to exclude the atmosphere whilst they are becoming cold.

COOKING WITHOUT FIRE.—Mr. Kenney, of Rock-savage, has discovered and reduced to practice the art of cooking without fire. By a chemical agency, yet undivulged, he is able to heat and prepare for use every kind of vegetable product consumed by horses and cattle, preserving their nutritive and wholesome qualities even for a longer period than they are maintained by the ordinary method. The means employed are said to be cheap and simple, and the saving of labour very considerable.

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